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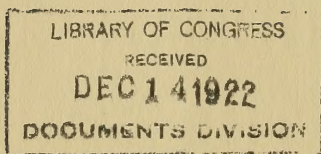
LIEUTENANT-COLONEL HOMER FOLKS



"THE HUMAN COSTS OF THE WAR"



Under the auspices of the
MUNICIPAL COURT EDUCATIONAL DEPT



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Homer Folks was Lieutenant-Colonel in the American Red Cross and Director of the Department of Civil Affairs of the American Red Cross in France, Chief of the Red Cross Survey Mission in Italy, Greece, Serbia, Belgium and France. "The Human Costs of the War," an address delivered Friday, October 10, 1919, in Room 676, City Hall, is based on his book published by Harper Brothers.

Mr. Folks is a leader in the field of public service; former President of the New York State Probation Commission; former Commissioner of Public Charities in New York City; organizer of Public Relief in Cuba under General Wood, etc.; and Author of "The Care of Destitute, Neglected and Delinquent Children."

In introducing Lieutenant-Colonel Folks, Honorable Charles L. Brown, President Judge of the Municipal Court, said:

We are gathered here today to hear an inspiring message from a great leader in public service, and we are fortunate, indeed, to have Colonel Folks here to inaugurate for us the series of addresses which we purpose to give on matters concerning the public service and the public welfare. These addresses we thought should be for the benefit of our staff alone, and that is a very large one. I feel, however, that we should let the community have the benefit of the inspiration that the talks of the men and women who are leading authorities in the field of public service will bring us. Therefore, we have extended the invitations to men and women of this community whose co-operation make such real work as the big work of our Municipal Court possible. We are going to bring here to these meetings to address you, people who will help you, who are in the social service of the Court, and you who are in other fields of public and private social service. They will bring new vision, new hope and new suggestions and guidance for our work.

I wish to say a word on other plans we have for our own workers. Through the co-operation of public-spirited citizens, it has become possible for us to provide certain of you who are in the service of our Court, with the opportunity for work at the Pennsylvania School for Social Service, so that you may increase our potentiality for service to the public. I say you have the privilege of taking these courses, but I also want to say that I appreciate your helpfulness and willingness to undertake this effort, which means extra time and extra labor. I desire to thank you for responding so wholeheartedly to my plans for training for public service. I am only sorry that circumstances prevent more than ten of you from undertaking this work. I know those of you who are going will not be disappointed in the trouble your efforts will give you.

We will try to have these public meetings once or twice a month. On November 7th, Miss Maude E. Miner, Director of

the Girls' Protective Leagues and Chairman of the Board of Directors of the National Probation Association, will speak on Probation Work with Women and Girls. On November 14th, Doctor Charles A. Beard, Director of the Bureau of Municipal Research, New York City, under whose direction is conducted the Training School for Public Service, will speak on "Training for Public Service." Mr. Burdette G. Lewis, Commissioner of Correction of the State of New Jersey, will address us on December 12th.

These meetings are open to all who may be interested. I hope that through them we, of the Municipal Court, will be able to make our contribution to a better understanding of the problems of the public aspects of social service. These are, indeed, the times that try men's souls; and it is only by the constant effort to arrive at a better and a deeper understanding of our tasks that we can be helpful to each other.

Colonel Folks is our speaker today. He came to our city to preside at the National Tuberculosis Conference and we are especially privileged to have him address us. To our Municipal Court he stands as a symbol. He is a pioneer in probation work. I believe he outlined the organization of the first State Probation Commission, that of New York, of which he is now President. His interest, among his many interests, has always been in children. He is the author of a book which is a standard for workers with children, "The Care of Destitute, Neglected and Delinquent Children." I think that our staff, and all those interested in children, should read that book. Colonel Folks has had an experience in France which is bound—by the greatness of his duties in a great world crisis—to carry inspiration to all working in social service or to those interested in it. It was his duty to help relieve the distress of the suffering civilians in France. He was Director of the Department of Civil Affairs of the American Red Cross in France, Chief of the Red Cross Survey Mission in Italy, Greece, Serbia, Belgium and France. He is embodying his experience in a book, which Harper Brothers will publish and which will appear serially in Harper's Magazine. It is the highest privilege to have Colonel Folks address us upon "Human Costs of the War," an address based upon that book.

Allow me to present Colonel Folks.

ADDRESS

Judge Brown, Probation Officers and Social Workers of Philadelphia:

Before entering upon my real subject, I must delay a moment to express my gratification at the fact that this opportunity for training and this series of talks on matters of social welfare are being made available for the probation officers of the Municipal Court. I am not sure that my acceptance was not due to my sense of the unusual character of the occasion.

It is a very exceptional thing that Judge Brown and his colleagues have done. I have known of courses of training for probation officers arranged by themselves, or arranged by a State Commission, but in no previous instance have I known the court itself to foresee the need and actually plan for such opportunities for those important arms of the court, the probation officers.

In doing this Judge Brown has done a service to the cause of probation throughout the entire country, and I am sure that his example will be followed in other cities.

I confess that I consented to appear in court with a great nervousness, perhaps apprehension, but since I have had a good look at the jury, I feel reassured and I feel reasonably confident that I shall, at least, secure disagreement if not an actual acquittal at the end of the proceedings.

I shall speak to you for a time on substantially the question of human welfare in Europe as affected by the war. I speak of Europe for two reasons: in the first place, because I must, I have to. Anyone who has seen and participated in the work of relief from the sufferings caused by the war in Europe, and who has caught even a glimpse of the true condition of the peoples of Europe today, must inevitably feel that the most useful thing that he can do is to try to give some expression to those facts which are so little understood, and perhaps can be so little understood, by those who have not actually seen them at first hand. Secondly, I speak of Europe, and of the opposite of

human welfare in Europe, because I am disposed to think that we, as social workers or probation officers, or persons interested in human welfare in America, can do nothing to steady our perspective and give us a point of view of what the world is and needs, more properly than to become a bit more informed and to think a little bit more about the actual, present conditions of the people of Europe.

Social work involves a sort of an ideal on our part. As social workers we are all doing what we can to see that men, women and children all have a chance to live happy and useful lives, not cut short by sickness and death, and not deprived of fruition by causes beyond their control. There has never been anything in the history of the world which has in such a wholesale way had an opposite effect on so many people as the war.

I will begin with the point which we appreciate perhaps more readily, because we have seen something of them,—the effects of the mobilization of the armies. Probation officers, relief workers and Red Cross members, have some appreciation of the problems of human need and changed human circumstances that are involved in the mobilization of an army. The tremendous home service of the Red Cross is just one of the things that had to be done to carry relief and aid and assistance to families from which the men had been called to serve their country. We mobilized in America something like four million men, and that mobilization disarranged our entire industrial life, upset a great many things that we had thought were permanently arranged, and made an extraordinary demand upon all our relief and social agencies and workers.

Let me call your attention to the extreme degree to which those problems existed in the European countries, our allies and our friends. In the first place, the mobilization of the men of those countries was several times greater than ours was at its greatest. France had a population a little more than a third of that of the United States. She mobilized somewhere between six and seven millions of men. If we had mobilized a corresponding number in proportion to our population we should have called together an army, not of four million, but of something like twenty millions of men, and the interference with the normal life of the community and of families would have been more than five times as great, because we selected the younger

men, and preferably the men without families or dependents, whereas in France every man between eighteen and fifty, who was physically fit, unless he was the father of five children living, was mobilized. Some of them were, of course, retained to work in the necessary industries, to run the transportation, work the mines, keep the munition factories going, but practically every man fit to be a soldier was enrolled in the army in France; so that the interference with the productive life of the country and with the relations between fathers and children was a good deal more than five times as great as was that of the United States.

The second striking fact is that it is the custom in European countries to pay their soldiers a very nominal sum. They serve their country as a matter of duty, not as a matter of employment. A soldier in France—and this is practically true of the European countries outside of England—was paid the equivalent in our money of five cents a day when at the front, and two or three cents a day when assigned to service in the rear. There is no question of allotments and allowances from soldiers' wages for the assistance of their families in the European countries. As a matter of fact, the support afforded their families by these men was simply dropped, with nothing to take its place, for an appreciable period of time. Afterward an allowance was made by the Government to families of soldiers, an allowance which amounted to about the equivalent of 25 cents per day for an adult and less than that for children, an allowance which, when made, would cover the cost of food, leaving practically nothing else for other expenditures, but which, with the rise of prices, would hardly even buy the necessary food for those who were compelled to buy their food.

The third difference between ourselves and European countries as to mobilization, is that while our men were mobilized for a year or a year and a half, or varying periods of about that length, the soldiers of France and of those other countries were mobilized for a period of four years and a half. Europe was a continent of manless homes during that time. The Judge of your Juvenile Court knows what it means to have the men all away and away for some time. We all know that delinquency is apt to arise. The father of the household is more than the support. He is the steady factor. His place in

the household is always supreme and nothing takes his place, even if there were an allowance that made up the actual financial deficit. The absence of practically all the men for a period of four years and a half was bound to be followed by social results of the most far-reaching and most disastrous character, as they were.

The next result of war, of course, after mobilization is fighting. We all think of that when we think of war. We see the clash of the armies on the field and we hear the shrieks of the wounded, and in our imagination we see the men who died on the field of battle. We have felt it in our own localities. I said to a neighbor of mine, a few days after my return, whom I happened to meet on the street, "I hope your boys are back from France by this time?" He turned away and he said, "All that are coming back. One is not coming back." I had two other friends in my little home town who lost their boys in France. It seemed to me quite a number in my little circle of acquaintances. I picked up the graduating class publication of the High School of Yonkers, and on the first page, in a black border, there were the pictures of the boys who would have graduated that year, but did not and never will. They graduated to another world. There were seventeen of them out of that small group. It seemed to me we had an extraordinary number of deaths in our little town. I read in the evening paper shortly afterwards the proceedings of a memorial meeting, with a list of the Yonkers boys that died, and it filled about three-fourths of a column. I was perfectly astounded at the number. It never occurred to me that out of a total of 50,000 deaths of American boys there would be so many in a town of 100,000 people. I made a little calculation to see what would be the average quota, so to speak, for a place of 100,000 people, and one mathematical operation showed that it would be about 45. It dawned on me for the first time after my absence that from a community in America of the size of 100,000 people the average was some 45 of their boys who would not return, a number which would really cast a shadow of gloom and of mourning and of sorrow over all American communities. Then I thought, what would it be if we had been in the war as long and as deeply as those European countries? Specifically, I thought of France, where on every street in every city, and

every day, one of the most conspicuous things you see is the widow's black veil. France, with about a third of our population, lost about a million and three-quarters of men, including actual deaths known and registered, and most of the nearly 300,000 of the missing will never return, to say nothing of the deaths among the prisoners. A little mathematical calculation showed me that if we had lost as many in proportion, we would have lost about seven and a half millions of men,—something like that, speaking from memory. At any rate, it was ninety-five times the number in proportion to population so that our little town of Yonkers, if it had lost its boys and its men—because they were of ages up to 50—in the same proportion that France lost her boys and her men, would not be mourning forty-five or fifty boys, it would be mourning 4,300 in that community of 100,000 people.

That, perhaps, gives us a little better impression of France, of Serbia, largely of Italy, and, to some extent, of Belgium. We simply cannot understand the extent to which those countries are permeated and soaked through and through with the strain of sorrow and loss and suffering and grief for the men and boys that have gone. The actual number of deaths among the Allied soldiers is over seven and a half millions, to say nothing of the missing, and the number of men killed by the war in Europe is certainly in excess of ten millions. That creates a problem of social hardship, in widowhood, in orphanage, the proportions of which stagger our imagination, the effects of which will last for decades. Not probably until the opening of the next century will there be no one who can look back and say, "How different life might have been for me if I had not lost my father in the great war."

But that question of loss, of widowhood, of the orphans, of the soldiers who died, and the million—or whatever the number is, for it is more than a million—of permanent cripples, are things we all know about in a way, the first things we think about when we think about war. There are other phases that are less well known, but perhaps are even more significant and distressful for the future of the peoples of Europe. When an army comes into a country, a foreign army—and it was with a wonderfully deep understanding of the nature of war that Germany planned to carry on war in the other countries' territory—

when an army rolls in, there are civilians there of course. The army comes there unexpected and very rapidly, and you have to do one of two things, to run and leave, or to go down in the cellar and wait until it goes by. There were four million and a half of people in the part of France that Germany overran. A million and a half of them ran, and three millions went down to the cellars. I want to trace just a little further just what happened to those people and the people similarly placed all through the other countries, from the North Sea all the way up through and around into Russia. You have all read of the people who went away, the refugees. I know that you have all seen the pictures of them streaming down the roads of France, taking up one or two or three things that they thought most of or thought most valuable, tying them up in a package and just walking away as fast and as far as they could walk, to keep ahead of the incoming army, and finally reaching a railway, being packed like animals in cattle cars, crowded in as closely as they could possibly be crowded, and taken into the interior for one, two, three or four days; stopped at sidings to let other trains go by, with no protection from the cold weather to speak of, and then arriving. That is the part we have all read about, the people driven from their homes with a few moments' notice in that way.

But the real claim on our sympathy arises from what happened to them after that. That is the real thing. We could travel three or four days, if we had to, under uncomfortable circumstances and get along. We don't expect to sleep very well when we travel, ordinarily, and our meals are interrupted and we do not have a very comfortable time as a rule. But when this million and a half of people got to where they were going, that was when the real trouble began, because nobody was expecting them there excepting for a day or two or even an hour or two before they came. There was nowhere for them to go. People were already living in all the houses. There was nothing for them to do, no extra work to be done. Everything was disorganized by the war. There was no comfortable place to go to live. There was no additional furniture to buy, there was no additional wood and hardly enough food to go around. It was five or ten per cent. of the original population of those communities just thrown upon them. Suppose you

had in Philadelphia here another ten per cent. of people dumped down upon you without any notice, or not, perhaps, more than twenty hours' notice, what would you do with them? Suppose it was winter time? Well, they went into churches, they slept on the floors in the aisles, they went into the stables, from which the horses had been taken for the army. They would go into an empty factory that had been closed because of the war—any old place at all, and hardly anybody thought of having more than one room for a family. These were people who had lived comfortably, mind you. They were not unsuccessful people, they were all the people—educated and uneducated, workers and professionals, and they all had to crowd up and they were all lucky if they did not have more than one family in a room. A large room like this would probably be used by hanging some burlap on strings or wires, and dividing the room into little squares about ten feet square. Each of those little squares was a home for a family,—the mother and grandmother, an old grandfather, perhaps, and some young boys and girls of all ages and a baby or two. Each little square was a home for a family. There was not much, if any, coal to be had. You could not dream of getting enough to keep warm. You might get enough to cook with if you were clever. There was almost no kerosene or oil to be had and they lived in darkness and damp, cold and gloom, in unemployment and insufficient income. They had no money to buy clothes if their clothes wore out. They did not have hardly any bedding with them, and there was hardly any more to buy. They had a wretched time. They got sick, but the doctors were all called to the army. They never had any trained nurses anywhere in France. There were no doctors to look after them. Then was the real trouble. People helped, of course, and the Government gave them an allowance to buy food with after a little while, and the Red Cross set up a distributing agency by and by towards the very end of the war, when they got around to it. But there, a million and a half of people who had been refugees and exiles from home, crowded into any old place. They lived that way for four years. There is the hard part—for four years. There is a test of your vitality to stand up against all those things that break down your health and

resourcefulness. For four years, not four days,—four years of exile under those conditions.

How many were there of them? A million and a half I said was the number in France in 1914 and half a million more came along in the spring of 1918. That is two million people in France. That is only a beginning of refugees. There were refugees from Belgium to the number of about a million; in Italy half a million; in Greece several hundred thousands; in Serbia I don't know how many, but there were thousands and thousands and thousands of them. All through Rumania, Russia and Austria there were refugees from the front. When the Russians invaded it, half a million Germans were driven out of east Prussia. There were ten or twelve million people, at least, living in the way I have just described, all the standards simply knocked to pieces, all the ways they had learned how to live through these centuries, to be cleanly, to be decent and educate their children, all their standards were knocked into smithereens, and they were living in any way they could to get along for a period of four and a half years.

You cannot do that without breaking down for a long time to come the standard of living, of welfare, of that enormous number of people. The war ended and they began to go back, ten million people, to their homes. I wish I had time to describe to you what they found when they got back, and what they did. They went back to the devastated areas, as we say. You have seen pictures of that until you are sick and tired of "devastated areas." But these people had to see the devastated areas from the inside, not from the outside. They went there to live. That was where they came from. Those were their homes. They went back and had to dig in the cellar to see whether there was an archway still standing; if there was, they would get a few bits of furniture and make their home in the cellar. I recall on my last visit to the city of Lens, the coal mining city, there were only a few streets you could go on at all. You would think there was nobody there at all, but if your automobile happened to blow its horn, they would begin to come up out of the ground here and there among these ruins, from places you could not see were occupied by anybody. It was very pathetic, but it was very curious. You could not help thinking of the way woodchucks pop up out of their holes in

the fields of clover. Think what it means. Those ten million people are living under conditions that are as much worse now than when they were in exile, as those conditions were worse than those they originally came from. They were darker, colder and gloomier, damp and underground, and it will be twenty years before they are rebuilt. All the statements you read about this, that and the other place being rebuilt this year or next year,—put them down as absolutely not so. About all that has been accomplished really in all that area is to clear away barbed wire and clear up some of the streets, get some of the railroads running, get the canal opened up—a few things like that. There has been no beginning at actually rebuilding the peoples' houses. There are a few wooden barracks. A barracks is a thing you and I would not think good enough for a cow stable, because it is just an affair of boards roughly put together. But a barracks is the ideal of a house. It is the best even for the Mayor, the head of the town. A few barracks in a city of ten thousand people, for the very select people of the town, that is the very best you find; otherwise you find bits of old building paper and a few stakes, and so on, stuck up together in any kind of shape for a shelter. The people will live there through the winter to come and nobody knows how long after that.

I want to go back a moment to another phase. You have heard much less about it even than the refugees. The three million people who went down cellar when the storm passed by, when the tornado of war swept overhead, of course did not stay down cellar very long. It was maybe for a day or two, and then they came up. They were the conservatives. I suppose the radicals that were willing to try anything went away, but the conservatives stayed down in the cellar and came up. They came up in a changed world. They were under the control of an army of an enemy country. They hadn't any rights any more. They couldn't be sure of keeping anything they had. Whatever the other fellow wanted he took. If he wanted to live in a house he moved in, and made the people in the house take care of him. He was likely to take the products of their work. They were subject to all the shortages that the blockade placed upon the Central Powers (which finally brought them to terms), only it was worse. They suffered all the blockade

effects plus the fact that their things were taken away from them by the enemy to send back to the people at home when they began to be short. As the smoke clears away a little bit and we look over the situation, they seem to have suffered most of all. The people who went away got away from the war. The people who stayed, stayed under the control of this army of the enemy, and when you come to look over what happened you see that after all the effects of the shortage of food were more serious upon them than upon the people who went off into the interior.

The largest city in France that was occupied was Lille. The population of Lille was reduced to one-half of what it had been during the war. That was partly because the soldiers went away. It was considerably because people died. They died because they did not have enough to eat. That was the long and short of it. They always had, of course, something to eat. They did not starve to death, as we would say, in a famine, but they starved to death virtually, they died of something else first. They died of tuberculosis, they died of diseases of childhood, if they were children, and so on. There were half as many people in Lille when the war ended as when it began. The tuberculosis death rate was multiplied by two. The number of children born was one-eighth of what it had been before for the same period of time, and the proportion of deaths among those that were born was substantially greater than it was before. That is a pretty black picture of the occupied territory and the occupied territory was a great deal bigger in terms of numbers than the number of the refugees. Just run your mind over that. There were six million Belgians in occupied territory. There were three million French, there were four and a half millions of Serbians, there were a million Italians, there were five and three-quarter millions of Rumanians, there were twenty-two million Russians in territory occupied by Germans, a total of forty-two million people who lived under occupation by an enemy army and suffered all those hardships of oppression and repression and lack of food in the taking away of their supplies and clothing and fuel and all. Their mode of living was reduced to about the lowest consistent with living at all.

That is only a start, really, of the hardships that the war brought to the peoples of Europe, because the shortage of food during the latter part of the war applied not only to the blockaded territory, but it applied to many of the Allied countries, Italy and Greece, and those countries in the south of Europe, though they were not behind the blockade, actually experienced a shortage of food. That increased sickness and death among them and they came actually in sight of hunger. That is, the whole people, the whole 33,000,000 of Italy actually suffered a lack of sufficient food. You only have to look at them to recognize that fact, but it is indisputable when you look at the figures of what happened. I must speak for a minute or two more to show that all through that part of the world the diseases that have been slowly brought under some degree of control absolutely broke loose. All that has been done in the way of prevention of disease practically disappeared. People could not afford health work and they were too busy to think about it. Tuberculosis, which had been reduced about forty per cent. in Italy, shot up twenty-five per cent. in two years. Malaria, which was on the way to disappearance, jumped back to where it was twenty-two years ago. Typhoid fever increased all over the country, because of the people camping out of doors. The typhus epidemic of Serbia was a direct result of the crowding of those people in houses and lack of opportunity for cleanliness. A peculiar fact is that the louse always seems to enlist with the soldier. The talk and jokes and slang of the soldier were about the cootie, to a very considerable degree, but it is no joke because if there is typhus fever, the cootie carries it from one man to the next. The epidemic that cost 150,000 Serbian lives was a war epidemic of typhus. The "flu" itself we don't know all about, but we know that it came at the same time as the greatest strain of all. We know that it had been hibernating, as it were, in some area back in eastern Europe, where Russia joins Asia, and that after being quiescent there for a good while, it broke loose. Then this going back and forth of soldiers and refugees and everybody in every direction all the time spread it all over the world with a rapidity that has never been known before. The deaths from the "flu" which we know a great deal about in this country must be put down as due, in a very considerable degree, not wholly very

likely, but as being chargeable, to a substantial extent, to the fact of war. Italy lost about three times as many people from the "flu" as we did, in proportion to our population. Take Serbia, which, before the war, had a population of 5,000,000 people. It was growing at the rate of about 90,000 a year. They cannot bother to keep vital statistics in wartime, but the general agreement of a good many people who have studied the subject, by the Austrians while they were there and by the Serbians, and by the English, and by the Americans who worked there, is that, as a net result of all these things, Serbia not only lost all her normal growth, but actually lost a fifth of her entire population as it stood at the beginning of the war, coming to the end of the war with 4,000,000 people instead of 5,000,000 as she began it.

I must speak just a second of one other thing, one of the strange things you must think about a little while before you get the full bearing of it, and that is the tremendous reduction of the birth rate in those countries. It is not necessarily a good thing to have too many people in the world, so far as I know, but a differential reduction in the birth rate may be a very bad thing. It was a very bad thing that France's population stood stationary for the last forty years at about forty million, while Germany's went on from thirty-eight or thirty-nine to sixty-four millions. That was a very bad thing for the peace and future of the world. With extraordinary uniformity, with extraordinary evenness, the birth rate of those countries in which the war occurred fell until it was fifty per cent., or in Serbia apparently much less than fifty per cent. of what it had been. So that in the number of people who will enter the schools of the future, there will be a great hiatus when you come to the ages that would have been born in the years 1915 to 1919. A very curious thing is that it was true of Belgium, as well as of France and Italy, and in Belgium it was not because the men were in the army or out of the country. It was something about these bad standards of living and depression, being under the enemy army; the lack of food, of clothing and of shelter. The babies would just simply not be born. The actual shortage of births already in Europe among the white peoples in the world who are to carry the white man's burden, is about ten million in number, and to the extent that it is due to the

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lower standards of living, shortage of income, bad housing and the like, it will go on in some degree for we don't know how long. Looking backward years from now, in the great contest that may arise between the peoples of the world, it may well be that that reduction in the number of effective members of the white race, already ten millions in number, besides the deaths in the war itself, may prove to have been the most serious result of the many serious results of the great war.

That is a terrible picture, but it is a true picture. It is a picture which, perhaps, only those who have been accustomed to work in the various fields of human welfare would thoroughly understand. You could travel all over Europe and not see it. You would have to study it. You would have to examine into the underlying facts. The people of Europe do not know it. The people of Italy, with few exceptions, do not know it, do not know to what extent they lost. They just know they are in a bad way. Only those accustomed to deal with the statistics of lives and births and deaths and disease, of poverty and sickness, see the extent to which this terrible calamity rests upon the people of Europe.

We can do a little about it. I wish we could do more. We can, at least, look facts in the face. We can be patient and sympathetic with people who have gone through such stress and suffering as we have not come in sight of. We can make allowances for the bitternesses and skepticisms and pessimisms that are bound to exist all through Europe. We can refrain from doing anything that in any way would lead them to feel that America is not interested in Europe, that when our soldiers said good-bye to France we, as a nation, said good-bye to Europe. We cannot do that, we cannot be onlookers, spectators. We have got to stand by our Allies in Europe in spirit, in sympathy, in understanding, until the wounds of the war are healed. (Applause.)

JUDGE BROWN: On behalf of this gathering, and for myself, I want to thank Colonel Folks for this intelligent presentation of the results of the war on the human race. It has been inspiring and it ought to make us sympathetic with those people who suffered so very much more than we have. I thank him in your behalf and for myself for this wonderful address.

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